









## DIPLOMACY.

On this important topic we quote the following letter by "A Diplomatist," from a recent issue of the Times.

"The question of Administrative Reform is not the question of theoretical innovators or speculative politicians—it is the question of a practical people, who are individually remarkable for their talent for business, and who are determined that the business of the country shall be conducted with the same zeal and ability with which they each in his own calling conduct their own affairs. Their attention at this moment is particularly directed to the diplomatic service; they are determined to examine into it, and, if necessary, to reform it. It is a service, however, which does not pass immediately under their own eyes, and which is not associated with their daily habits. On some points, in order to form a correct judgment, they must obtain peculiar and professional information; on others their national characteristic, common sense, will be a sufficient guide.

"With your permission, I will discuss the question in your journal; and, in the first place, I shall endeavour to remove a prejudice which in some quarters exist—viz., that this service is a mere service of parade; that the men who are engaged in it need merely be men of pleasure, or that, if any ability is wanted, it is only that ability which is required to point a wit or carry on an intrigue. In no profession with which I am acquainted is it more necessary to unite wisdom with acuteness, knowledge of men with knowledge of affairs. It is true that a diplomatist may possess these qualities, and that this may be rarely known to the public, and not always appreciated even by the chief with whom he corresponds, for his ability is more frequently exercised in those small acts of everyday life which prevent difficulties from arising than in those great actions which are more rarely required in great crises when difficulties have arisen. Nevertheless, to fill his station properly he ought to have a thorough knowledge of the interests, position, and character of his own country, and be able to acquire a knowledge of the character, interests, and position of the country to which he is sent. He ought not to be ignorant of any of the political elements which constitute the condition of a State; he must be able to judge of its progressive decline or its growing strength. He ought to foresee—not as the result of secret information, which is often erroneous, but as the consequence of existing passion and prevailing interests, which very rarely deceive—that inclination which a Government is likely to manifest in certain contingencies, and the part which it may be expected to take in great European events. He must study the nation in which he resides financially, commercially, politically; he should be acquainted with the character of its sovereign, and of the men and parties who exercise an influence on its destiny. He must be prepared for sudden and great events, and not be found an ordinary, ignorant, good-natured, and merely gentlemanlike man at a moment when the greatest interests of his country may, in a considerable degree, depend upon his information, sagacity, and boldness. He is perpetually called upon to decide on matters on which he can either have no opinion at all or on which if he has a sound opinion, it cannot be derived either from the well-digested knowledge of a variety of facts or from an intimate acquaintance with public law. Manner and temper, moreover, are as essential to him as ability and mind. He must be straightforward in all his dealings, inspire confidence, and obtain confidence, without being too credulous or over-suspicious. Nor can England, because she is an island, afford to be represented in foreign countries by men of inferior capacity to that of the representatives of other States. Instead of being separated from the world by the ocean, the ocean unites her with every portion of the world; her free institutions are different from the institutions of almost every other great European State; her maritime policy and power are also objects of jealousy and suspicion, and keep her in some degree aloof from nations, which frequently entertain unjust suspicions as to her intentions, and are not disposed to league against her greatness and authority. That authority, indeed, throughout the world, is more or less an authority of credit, which she must everywhere maintain, and not be found a prudent, in order that she may not be compelled to exert it by violence, or defend it by force. In many respects she resembles Venice in the Middle Ages, in the records of whose diplomacy we find the strongest proofs of that watchful care and superior sagacity which were among the principal causes of her greatness. Let it be granted, then, that England requires a diplomacy possessing men who, by their energy, capacity, and intelligence, shall be fit representatives of England.

"How are such men to be attracted to the diplomatic career? It is not a mere regular routine advancement, which promises moderate rewards in the shape of honour and compensation, that will attract men of great abilities, and great and legitimate ambition. Such men are not allured to a career by even the certainty of slow advancement and second-rate rewards. It is the great prizes of public life which attract their early attention, and stimulate their manly energies. Our Chief Justices and Lord Chancellors, rising not unfrequently from the lowest classes of society, have been invigorated and stimulated throughout their long and arduous career by distant glimpses of the robe dignified by ermine or the woolstock glorious by tradition. The great men of the United States who enter the career of public life have the President's chair, the White House, constantly before their eyes; and it is remarkable enough that as late years this, the highest reward, has been conferred on men of inferior reputation, or a smaller number of really eminent and remarkable men has appeared among the candidates for public honours. In any career in which you wish to obtain first-rate men you should have a small number at least of first-rate prizes; but, then, every man who enters such career should feel that the attainment of those prizes depends upon his merits, and that it is not useless, or almost useless, for him to contend for them against high birth or party patronage.

"There has been a cry for some time past against ambassadors. An ambassador is the highest rank to which a diplomatist can attain. Why deprive a profession of its highest reward when you wish to attract to it the most capable men? The feeling of the public on this subject, I am confident, has been conferred upon the ambassador is very rarely conferred upon professional merit, and nearly always given to rank. It is, in fact, worth remarking that the cry to which I allude has evidently increased in just relation to the increase which has taken place in the custom of giving to peers the first diplomatic posts. In the years which followed shortly after the peace of 1815 the leading diplomatists of the day, and who filled the highest positions, were commoners—Sir Charles Stuart, Sir William Acland, Sir Charles Bagot, Sir Henry Wellesley. The titles of

these gentlemen were derived from the decorations which they had received from their honourable services. There was no exclusion against peers, but they formed rather the exception than the rule. At present all the first-rate diplomatic posts are held by peers. At Paris, at Berlin, at Brussels, at Vienna, at Madrid there are peers; at the Hague and at Naples two representatives are men who by the natural course of descent will inherit peerages. I say nothing of Constantinople, because the peer who holds that post has been raised to the rank in consequence of his diplomatic services. Nor do I mean by my previous observations to fall into any unjust and illiberal censure against the occasional employment in any part of the public service; but no one can suppose that there is such a disparity between peers and ordinary men that three-fourths of the highest places in a particular career should be given to the former as merely the result of merit. Moreover, although I do justice to the abilities of some of those peers to whom I have just been alluding, and am not desirous to exclude peers from being occasionally employed in the high posts of diplomacy, especially when they have been trained and educated for that profession, although I think it one of the glories of our land that the wealthiest and the noblest are candidates in the various branches of the public service for public honours, yet I cannot be altogether unmindful of the fact that there are many who consider that it is not on foreign stations that the peerage should be employed. To the rank of the peerage there are attached in our country peculiar duties. A peer is a judge; he is a legislator; he has a great sphere of public usefulness and distinction open to him by birth or royal favour within his own country. It would be thought an anomaly if a legislator of the Lower House passed years and years abroad; there is something like an anomaly, though the cases are not precisely parallel, when a legislator of the Upper House passes the greater part of his life in foreign lands. He can give his proxy, it is true; but in this case he must be a political puppet, who leaves his proxy in the hands of any minister or a mere political partisan, who only gives it to the particular party to which he belongs, and by which he has been nominated in exchange for his support. Were it necessary to have a peer at any particular Court, it would be more easy to make an able diplomatist a peer than a peer an able diplomatist; but I am inclined to think that as a general rule a peerage is a more fitting reward for past services in diplomacy than a fitting title for present or future employment therein. I do not, however, altogether press this argument to its full extent. I can sympathize with Lord Palmerston's recent appeal; I am willing to believe that certain talents may be hereditarily attached to certain names, and would regret to see a Wellesley excluded from our army or our diplomacy, as Grey or a Stanley from our Senate.

I should ever be sorry to see the custom of sending peers from time to time to represent our country abroad altogether abolished; but if diplomacy is to be a profession, this custom must not be abused. There is a difference between having a peer accidentally at this or that important post and having a peer designedly at every important post. Such a practice, indeed, not merely falsifies the character of the profession, but gives foreign countries a false impression as to our own character and institutions. It does not even represent our social system, nor accord with the prejudice which exists in some States in favour of noble blood, and which could be the only reasonable cause for selecting peers as our representatives to those States. Our uneducated gentry in three cases out of four are of more ancient and nobler descent than our titled barons. But if a man were the son of a peasant it is in the genius of our Government, and according to the opinion of our people, that he should be invested with every dignity which the nation can confer, if he has laid a sound claim to it by his services, and can adorn it by his abilities. We are proud of this at home—let us not be ashamed of it abroad. Let the rank of ambassador be retained in diplomacy as the rank of Field-Marshal in the army, and the rank of Lord Chancellor in the law; but let it be a rank which every one who enters the diplomatic service may aspire to attain; and do not allow it to be obtained by two paths—the one steep and almost inaccessible, the other broad and easy, in which no one but a peer can lose his way.

But I have shown the difference which exists between peers and commoners with regard to Ambassadors and Ministers in the great Courts of Europe. This is not the only instance in which it is remarkable. I believe that a diplomatist is entitled to a pension after 15 or 16 years have elapsed from the date of his commission as Secretary of Legation—that is, generally speaking, about 25 or 30 years after he has entered the profession. He may then be supposed either affected in constitution by foreign climate and arduous duty, or anxious to spend a certain number of years among his early friends in his own country. If he be a peer he pockets his pension and enters the House of Lords, where a new career has opened before him, and where the experience he has acquired be a source of credit to himself and benefit to the State. But the commoner is shut out of the House of Commons. He must abandon the reward he has just earned, and which, is, perhaps, the greatest part of his means, or he cannot take a seat in Parliament, which is the more to be deplored, inasmuch as English statesmen are not in general well informed of foreign nations or foreign affairs. Of course, this abuse cannot be intended. It cannot be intended that a statesman who has served a short time at home and received his pension should continue his public career in the House of Commons, and that a statesman who has served for many years abroad should be excluded therefrom. This is an absurd omission, which no Government has taken the pains to rectify."

## CHECKS UPON ADULTERATION.

(From the Spectator, August 4.)

The public has already anticipated the report of the Select Committee on the "Adulteration of Food, Drinks, and Drugs," and the journals are forestalling the probable recommendations which the Committee may make as to the proper check upon the abuse. The report will, of course, state to Parliament that the practice of adulteration is so extensive as to be in reference to some commodities almost universal, and that the substances used for the purposes of adulteration are in many cases injurious to health, and in not a few poisonous. They are employed principally for three purposes—to increase the bulk of the article nominally sold, with a more inexpensive substance; to heighten the pungency of the taste, or to restore to where adulteration has already diluted the flavour; and to improve the appearance, especially by heightening the colour. Thus, chicory is used in coffee, sprats in lieu of anchovies, water is put into gin, for the purpose of bulk; mineral acids into pickles, cayenne pep-

per into gin, for the purposes of flavour; copper into pickles, earths into anchovies, vermillion into cayenne, for purposes of colouring. Chicory is a drug with properties not always required by those who drink coffee; no art can make sprats so agreeable as anchovies, except to the vendor; coppers and vermillion are poisons.

One of the witnesses before the committee, a person of well-known experience, has made representations intended to diminish the effect of other evidence. He says that the accusers of the retail traders have only partial information, they have displayed much ignorance; they are not thoroughly skilled in the manipulation of chemical tests; they have confounded casual impurities, which are of no material importance, with intentional adulteration; they have grossly exaggerated as to the extent of the practice and as to the degree of the vitiation. There may be force in Mr. Redwood's evidence; but on re-examination he is obliged to qualify it considerably; and it must be taken only as qualifying. He speaks slightly of some drugs, because they are administered only in small quantities. In gin, for example, he represents that the oil of vitriol, intended to give the appearance of being acid, as if the spirit were fresh and potent, only exists in the proportion of one drop to a gallon. Now, unquestionably, there are substances poisonous in a concentrated form which become practically innocuous when largely diluted; but there are others which acquire an accumulated virulence by being slowly lodged in "the system." This is a part of chemistry into which philosophical inquiries have but lately entered. The Causes Celebres present us with cases very like that of Laffarge, or the story suspected to explain the case of Wooler at Darlington, where the poison is administered in such small quantities as not to be perceptible in the immediate effects, with certain death at the end of a protracted period. As is generally the case with empirical science, homoeopathy has not quite established its own principles, but it has thrown light upon the chemistry of medicine. One of the objections that have baffled the homoeopathist consists in the diversity of action observed in different drugs when exhibited in a highly comminuted form. With some chemical agents the action appears to be reduced almost to nil; with others, on the contrary, the action is perceptible with an activity beyond all proportion to the amount exhibited. The principle acted upon by the late Mr. Crose, the chemical magician of the Quakoo Hills, bears upon this part of the adulteration question. His principle is, to copy nature, who uses greatly diluted chemical agents steadily sustained for long periods of time. With a drop of acid, said Mr. Crose, I will remove a ton of gold, if the time be granted me. A ton of gold shall be suspended in a tank of water, and at some distance from it a stone; with a current of electricity kept up between the two, the gold and the stone, a single drop of acid let fall into that water will first go to the gold and lead itself, then to the stone, and deposit the gold, and back again to get a new load; and with sufficient time, the ton shall be carried away and settled on the stone. The principle of Mr. Crose's experiment applies to minerals and acids in other receptacles, if the conditions of watery vehicle and electricity be given. Now, in the human frame, the brain is the electric machine; and Heaven knows what pranks that chemical magician, the adulterator, may not play with us; while the human frame is not fitted like the tank to stand the racket of such experiments. Mr. Redwood's evidence may have some force in mitigating the particular personal blame of individual adulterators; but there ought to be no adulteration, even in minutely diluted proportions.

The remedy? It has been suggested by Dr. Hassall, that authorized public analysts should be appointed, to whom suspected articles might be brought. In some parts of the Continent there is a market officer to examine fairs and cattle, and to certify the quality of the goods. The principle of Mr. Crose's experiment applies to minerals and acids in other receptacles, if the conditions of watery vehicle and electricity be given. Now, in the human frame, the brain is the electric machine; and Heaven knows what pranks that chemical magician, the adulterator, may not play with us; while the human frame is not fitted like the tank to stand the racket of such experiments. Mr. Redwood's evidence may have some force in mitigating the particular personal blame of individual adulterators; but there ought to be no adulteration, even in minutely diluted proportions.

## SOME GOSSIP ABOUT ADVERTISEMENTS AND NEWSPAPERS.

(From the Quarterly Review, No. 193.)

By universal consent the world has accorded to the late George Robbins the palm in this style of commercial puffing. His advertisements were really artistically written. Like Martin, he had the power of investing every landscape and building he touched with an importance and majesty not attainable by meaner hands. He did perhaps go beyond the yielding line even of poetical licence when he described one portion of a paradise he was about to submit to public competition as adorned, among other charms, with a "hanging wood," which the astonished purchaser found out meant nothing more than a hanging gallows. But then he redeemed slight misadventures of this kind by touches which really displayed a genius for puffing. On one occasion he had made the beauties of an estate so enchanting, that he found it necessary to blur it by a fault or two, and he should have said "bright and good" for "human nature's daily food." But there were two drawbacks to the property. "The litter of the rose leaves and the noise of the nightingales" could no further go, and when he died, the poetry of advertising departed. All but the misnomer of the present generation must remember George Cruikshank's exquisite wood-cut of the astonished old viewing himself in the polished

Russian, which made the fortune of Warren. But in those days tradesmen only tried their wings for the flight. It was left to the present time to prove what unlimited confidence in the power of the advertisement will effect, and a short list of the sums annually spent in this item by some of the most adventurous dealers will perhaps startle our readers:—

|                                       |         |
|---------------------------------------|---------|
| "Professor Holloway, Pills, &c."      | £20,000 |
| Wells and Sons (Manchester oil, &c.)  | 10,000  |
| Rowland and Co. (Manchester oil, &c.) | 10,000  |
| Dr. De Jongh (cod liver oil, &c.)     | 10,000  |
| Heal and Sons (bedsteads and bedding) | 5,000   |
| Nicol (salver)                        | 4,000   |

It does seem indeed incredible that one house should expend upon the mere advertising of quack pills and ointment, a sum equal to the entire revenue of many a German principality. Can it possibly pay? asks the astonished reader. Let the increasing avenue of assistants to be seen "from morn to dewy eve" wrapping up pills in the "professor's" establishment within the shadow of Temple Bar supply the answer. Vastly as the press of this country has expanded of late years, it has proved insufficient to contain within its limits the rapid current of puffing which has set in. Advertisements now overflow in our omnibuses, our cabs, our railway carriages, and our steamboats. Madame Tussaud pays £90 monthly to the Atlas Omnibus Company alone for the privilege of posting her bills in their vehicles. They are tacked upon the pavement, painted in large letters under the arches of the bridges and on every dead wall. Lloyd's weekly newspaper is stamped on the "full Guelph cheek" of the plebeian penny; the emissaries of the Moses shower perfect libraries through the windows of the carriages which ply from the railway stations; and, as a crowning feat, Thackeray, in his journey from Cornhill to Cairo, tells us that Warren's blacking is painted over an obliterated inscription to Parnepetichus on Pompey's Pillar.

In the year 1845, when the railway mania was at its height, the Times advertising sheet was overrun with projected lines, and many a guess was made, we remember at the time as to their probable value, but high as the estimates generally were, they came far short of the truth. We give the cash and credit returns of advertisements of all kinds for nine weeks:

|          |           |
|----------|-----------|
| Sept. 15 | £138 14 6 |
| 20       | 3783 12 0 |
| 25       | 3936 7 6  |
| Oct. 1   | 4592 7 0  |
| 6        | 4518 14 0 |
| 11       | 5543 17 6 |
| 16       | 6687 4 0  |
| 21       | 6026 14 6 |
| Nov. 1   | 3130 3 6  |

During the greater part of the time that the proprietors were reaping the splendid harvest from the infatuation of the people, the heaviest guns were daily brought to bear from the leading columns upon the bubbles which rose up so thickly in the advertising sheet. The effect of their fire may be measured by the falling off of nearly three thousand pounds in the returns for a single week.

It is curious to see the estimate which the different journals place upon themselves as mediums of publicity by comparing their charges for the same advertisement. Thus the contents of the Quarterly Review for January, 1852, precisely similar as far as length is concerned to that which the reader will see upon turning to the cover of the present number—was charged for an insertion as an advertisement by the different papers as follows:—Times, 4s.; Illustrated News, £1 8s.; Morning Chronicle, 6s.; Morning Post, 6s.; Daily News, 6s.; Spectator, 1s. 6d.; Morning Herald, 6s.; Punch, 15s.; Observer, 6s. 6d.; English Chronicle, 6s. 6d.; Economist, 10s. 6d.; John Bull, 6s. 6d.; Athenaeum, 10s. 6d. Now the Times did not "display" the advertisement as all the others did, it is true, and therefore squeezed it into half the space, but with this difference, its charge was absolutely the lowest in the list, with the single exception of that of the Economist. How this moderation on the part of the leading journal is to be accounted for we know not, but the apparent dearth of the Illustrated News, meets a ready solution and affords us an opportunity showing how vastly the prime cost of an advertisement, during the present high price of paper especially, is augmented by a great increase of the circulation of the paper in which it appears and what the advertiser really gets for his money. If we take the advertisement of our contemporary, we will find to measure about one inch in depth; it is obvious then that we must multiply this measure by 170,000, the number of separate copies in which it appeared. Now 170,000 inches yields a strip of printed paper the width of a newspaper column—upwards of two miles and three quarters long! Thus we have at a glance the real amount of publicity which is procurable in a great journal, and with so remarkable a statement it will be well to close our paper.

## SIBERIA—ITS SOCIAL AND POLITICAL STATE.

(From the New York Tribune.)

THE Asiatic possessions of Russia, inclosed between the Ural mountains, the North Pacific Ocean, the North Pole, and Chinese Tartary, are generally called Siberia. This whole region is divided for administrative purposes into two parts, eastern and western Siberia—each with several provinces, and departments under the control of special Government-General. Siberia is watered by some large rivers—the Irtysh, the Ob, the Yenisei, and the Lena—all issuing from the Altai Mountains, and debouching in the Polar Ocean. They are navigable through their whole extent, but being frozen seven or eight months during the year, and traversing regions comparatively uninhabitable, no great use is derived from facilities which they would otherwise offer.

The population scattered over Siberia amounts to over 3,000,000, nearly six-sevenths of which are Russian—the natives being of Mongolian, Finnish, and Kamchatkan descent, the latter called Yakuts by the Russians. Averse, almost all, to agriculture, they are nomadic hunters or fishermen. The conquest of Siberia was made in the sixteenth century, by a band of Cossacks of the Volga and their military adventures under the lead of a certain Yeremak, and these equestrian tribes became its first European and Russian settlers. In the course of the seventeenth century, and more especially of the eighteenth, the Cossacks began to transport thither convicts and criminals. The first colonists of this character were the various dissenters from the Russian Orthodox Church. Whole villages or communities were thus transported, receiving in different parts of Siberia vast tracts of land. These colonists formed communities in the same way as they were organized in the mother country, having equal privileges of self-administration with the crown peasants, on paying a small tribute to the treasury. Their relations to European Russia is strongly prohibited, but they enjoy perfect liberty of worship according to their respective sects and usages. Some of these sectarians live according to the communism attempted by some Socialist theo-

rists. When the riches of the Altai Mountains were first discovered transportation thither to the mines took the place of capital punishment; this punishment having been abolished in 1740, under the Empress Elizabeth. Disgraced favourites, official defaulters, and finally political offenders, were sent thither for life, or for the term of their punishment.

Among the first in the eighteenth century were Menchikov and Biron—both of whom had emigrated to rule the empire and the field—Marshall Munich, and several others. At present, transportation to Siberia is a penalty administered for all kinds of crimes and offences; for burglary, theft, smuggling, and violations of the excise. According to the Russian penal code, these condemnations are variously graduated. The punishment is hard labour for life, or for a certain number of years, after which the felon becomes a colonist, receiving land, a house, and some cattle, and being attached to some rural community or borough, and enjoying the rights of this class of inhabitants. Smaller offences are punished with transportation for a lesser number of years, with the privilege of returning to Russia. Serfs condemned for any offence whatever never return into bondage; and thus Siberia becomes, to them at least, a land of emancipation.

Political offenders are distributed over Siberia according to the decision of the sovereign, and the courts martial by which they are condemned. Such offenders are generally incorporated into battalions forming the corps of the Siberian army. If the convict does not define the exact number of years of their service, they remain in the army 20 or 25 years, and then resign to become colonists and members of some community. Such a convict very seldom, and that only through some extraordinary exception, can be promoted to the grade of a commissioned officer. Those not condemned to transportation for life can, after their terms is expired, return to their families. After the insurrection in St. Petersburg in 1825, and that in Poland in 1830, many were sent to Siberia for life. Their destination was principally to the Altai Mountains, where they were incorporated in the mining districts, into which this whole region is divided; but no hard labour was imposed upon them. They count or are inscribed as prisoners; most of them, however, being supported by their relatives at home, they look, for means of gaining additional wealth, to the cities. As a general rule, transportation to Eastern Siberia is considered a somewhat more severe punishment than to Western Siberia.

Wives and children follow the exiles, lose all their status and privileges enjoyed in Russia. The bulk of the Russian population in Siberia, by which the rudiments of civilization have been introduced, consists of merchants trading thither, whose communities extend from the Ural Mountains to the mouth of the Amoor. They are established in boroughs and cities, or in agricultural districts, but perform military duties and those of internal police. There are also many Cossacks with some Mongolian tribes—Mantchoos, who have immigrated from China, and who preserve their customs and manners—some becoming Christians, others not. These are called Buryats by the Russians. The dissenters and descendants of convicts form the rest of the population. The Russians, as we have said, are traders, merchants, mechanics, operatives, miners, and agriculturists. But if the natives, of whom the Government takes especial care, intend to devote themselves to agriculture, they are allowed to select the best lands, being considered in principle the original owners of the country.

The distinction of the social organization of Siberia is, that no kind of serfdom exists, or can be introduced there. Otherwise, too, the inhabitants enjoy, comparatively, more liberty and independence than those of Russia proper. The requirements of the Government from the population are insignificant, and its pressure, therefore, is less heavy. Thus slowly but uninterruptedly, cemented grain by grain, a state is growing on political and social foundations wholly different from the mother country—not only unshaken by serfdom, but even possessing a certain democratic equality. Almost the only distinction of classes is that of the Government officials. Nobility, with its privileges, is there unknown; and no one tolls and avails of them, containing in themselves private individuals are determined by supply and demand, by capital and labour, and not by the tyranny of a master over a serf. The whole soil of Siberia belongs to the Crown; and it is already a fixed principle with the Emperors not to surrender any Crown lands to serfdom on any pretence. As far as Siberia is concerned the Cossacks are free soilers. No nobleman can migrate thither with his servants; and, saving some body-servants of officials, serfs are unknown.

The Russians are the cultivators of the soil; the natives and nomads breed horses, cattle, and sheep. But the principal wealth of Siberia lies in mining and gold washing. The Altai Mountains, running along its southern frontier, are subdivided into various chains—as that of the Little Altai, the Stanskoik, Douriskoi, the Jablonskoik, and the Great Altai. Various rivers, considered by geologists to be the richest on the globe. Muravioff found great similarity between the Altai region and California and Australia. The scarcity of the population prevents the thorough working of these hidden treasures. Thus far the earth has only been superficially scratched. The silver, arsenic, and lead mines are almost wholly abandoned, as dangerous to human life, and, as such, reducing the chances of increase to the population. Precious stones—even emeralds, opals, aquamarines, topaz—were found freely, and the last are of a very large size. Gold-washing is the principal, or rather, the exclusive industry. All the principal rivers, with most of their tributaries, have their sources in the Altai, and carry gold. New and more productive gold-washings are established every year. The business is conducted by Government prisoners and by private persons, subject to a tax which is not excessive, as the existence of millions in Siberia shows. Generally, the private establishments are the most prosperous. The gold-product is carried to the city of Barnaul, situated in the Government of Tomsk, in Western Siberia, in the centre of the Little Altai chain. There are the furnaces, the assays, and the central mining administration. The metals, and especially the gold brought by private individuals, are purchased by the Government for cash at equitable and satisfactory prices, and thence conveyed to St. Petersburg.

The valleys in the Altai are covered with gorgeous vegetation in summer, and various nutritious grasses, as are the plains of South-western Siberia. In some parts wheat is cultivated; but, as long before the earth is covered with snow the frost comes with exceeding intensity, this important product, as well as fruit trees, cannot be cultivated on a large scale. Bye, oats, barley, and buckwheat thrive,

and in some spots, potatoes, and other vegetables.

The capital of Western Siberia is Tobolsk, situated on the river Irtysh. It has some twenty thousand inhabitants, and is the commercial metropolis of the whole of Russian Asia. Its trade, carried on with the European interior of the empire, and extending to China, is very brisk and extensive. Some fifty miles north of the Lake of Baikal, the city of Irkutsk, situated at the confluence of three rivers, of which the Angara forms the principal, is the capital of Eastern Siberia. The site, surrounded by elevated wooded hills, is very picturesque. Irkutsk has about five thousand inhabitants, and the Governor-General of the Eastern Territory resides there. At present this office is filled by Lieutenant-General Muravioff, a man of high cultivation and ability, and of an enterprising and energetic character. He holds greater powers than any other Governor-General suited to organize such a primitive country.

Not long since the country south of Lake Baikal, embracing nearly the whole chain of the Altai, was organized into a Government called the Trans-Baikalan. It is the richest country for mineral purposes in Northern Asia. Irkutsk is the seat of the archbishopric for the whole region. The natives are gradually converted; and, as far as possible, the clergy selected from among them, the rites of the Church being performed in their own dialects. Various languages, Greek, for the Poles, Latin, Russian, Mantchoo, and so forth are severally employed for this purpose in Siberia.

These vast Asiatic possessions have been of late increased by the annexation of a very extensive territory destined to form the jewel of Siberia. Russia has taken possession of the entire left bank of the Amoor, that is, from the junction of the River Shilka and of the Arann, which form the Amoor or Saghalien, down to its mouth at that part of the Pacific called the Sea of Okotsk.

Some time since we gave some particulars of this portion of the Russian Empire, and to these we now add some further details, as well as the mode in which it was taken possession of. These facts we derive from sources not easily accessible to European writers. The Mantchoo country, situated on the left side of the Amoor, is occupied by a few nomadic bands of Tartars, no fixed settlement or any kind of cities existing there. Although nominally considered under the supremacy of China, it was, in fact, a region without a master. The Chinese really never claimed it. Many years ago Russian traders descended the river Shilka, and some other streams running and debouching in the Amoor, and visited the Chinese towns thereon. The Celestial authorities, as well as the inhabitants, spoke of the left bank of this river as naturally belonging to Russia. The regular occupation of the territory took place in 1849. It was prepared with care and foresight. Two small iron steamers were built in Shilka, a mining establishment situated on the river of the same name. Their construction, occupying nine months, was divided between a naval officer and an engineer, having at their disposal only crude materials and raw workmen. These steamers, laden with guns, arms, ammunition, stores, and implements of all kinds, served to convey the Governor-General, his staff, and some infantry soldiers. They were accompanied by about one hundred rafts and barks filled with Cossacks. The river, carefully explored and sounded, proved everywhere navigable without rapid or any other serious obstructions. At the end of thirty-three days the expedition reached the mouth of the river, and a permanent establishment was planted there. Industry and activity began. A few miles down on the opposite side is situated a Chinese town, and a good understanding exists between the two banks. The natives made no opposition whatever to the expedition nor the occupation. The Russians do not interfere with them, nor does the Government limit their roving life, nor exact any kind of service. The harbour is very deep and extensive, being nearly shut out from winds by the Island Keraffa or Saghalien, which was seized by Russian navigators years before the expedition. The whole land is covered with meadows and forests full of the best kind of lumber, and excellent oak for native constructions. The soil is capital and fit for all kinds of culture, but is as yet untouched by the creative hand. In all Siberia, Amoor is spoken of as the land of promise, and so it will become when agriculture and industry shall wake into genial life. The River Amoor teems with fishes of all kinds, the most delicate known, and some said to be stranger to other waters. The forests are full of game as well as of bears and wolves. Grain and bread were unknown to the natives, who now eagerly seek the latter in their barter with the Russians.

The acquisition of this part of the Mantchoo country, and of the mouth of the Amoor, is the most valuable made by Russia during the reign of Nicholas. It gives completeness and vitality to Siberia. When the new territory is developed, Kamchatka and the East will be independent of supplies from St. Petersburg. Trade will be opened with China, Japan, and California, as the empire comes to take full advantage of its new outlet to the Pacific.

A BRAVE GUARDSMAN'S USE OF HIS MOTHER'S LETTERS.—Joshua Priestly, of the Grenadier Guards, has written home to his parents, the Grenadier, Grenadier, an interesting letter. He says: "I have received one of his comrades who was known to his parents, and who was carried off by cholera, after 19 hours' illness, and the faithful inquiries he had made respecting another friend, the writer remarked that he had some money treasured up for his parents, which he was unable to send in a letter; and with respect to the epistles he had received from his mother, says: 'I don't want to see any more crying letters come to me from you. Those that I have received I have put in into my rifle after loading it, and have fired them at the Russians, because you appear to have a strong dislike to them. If you had seen as many killed as I have you would not have sent me any more letters as you have; besides, being present when I was shot, shell, and musketry were flying past and ringing around you, bursting and killing hundreds on your right hand and on your left, and yourself kept firing until the worst stream of blood was running down your face, and you were lying on the ground, I am sure that you would have been a querry like barrowfield of old.' A dead man, he affirmed, was no more thought of there than a dead fish in England; but he consoles himself by adding: 'The next attempt will pay for all, or one-half of the allied armies will be sacrificed.'"

The Athenian states, on tolerable authority, that a young lady of the Kumbha family may presently attempt to continue the long career of service done to art by those of her name as a singer.

The Comptroller of the Exchequer, in Parliament, has just delivered into the Exchequer, by a legal conveyance in good and due form, in presence of us, the money market and the witnesses of this deed, &c.

The pods or beans of peas, which formerly were used in the preparation of gunpowder, were recently preserved at Oxford in a sealed vessel, and were found to be perfectly good for the purpose of making gunpowder.







Dr. DOUGLASS contended that it was unparliamentary to tax hon. members of sitting unaccountably, and to particularize the vote of any member.

The probability that Lord Melville, at present Commander of the Forces in Scotland, will go out to the Crimea to take the command of a Division, is stated by the Scotsman.

proposal came under the discussion of whether he  
than his own, the result naturally to be expected,  
caused, the Attorney-General and other members  
serving to emulate the tender humanity evinced by

As we are on the eve of a new election, and there is going to be a community chest vote, we have had a preview place in the commentary, on the

benefit of creditors. The prices were, the whole, nearly up to wholesale rate of old stock, some small lots of old stock cheap.

king, lately raised a thrilling subscription of friends and neighbours, with which he procured hundreds of robes to the army in this Colony. The Frontinier and Oriental Company of India, Captain Roy, takes out this voyage, to date, a railway state carriage for the use of his

ing his  
over  
man,  
down-  
Pasha.







156 packages of new goods, new landing.  
Paradise is to-morrow's home.

Handsome pair bag carriage harness, 38 inches high  
Silver-mounted harness  
Heavy family harness.  
The above will be sold in one lot or separately,  
Terms, cash.

**LUM** **arrives**, at his **Room**, No. 222, **Orange**-**street**,  
on **SATURDAY** next, the 17th instant, at 11 o'clock precisely.  
25 copies of **bulletin** also.  
To be taken with all haste.  
On account of whom it may concern.  
Trunks, etc.

**CHATTO and HUGHES** have received instructions to sell by auction, at their sale room, 214, George-street, on **SATURDAY, the 17th instant, at 11 o'clock,**

**5 easy mares.**

**Terms at sale.**

and that, though not based on the basis of being made to yield a  
 LAMAR was on very on the basis of the American. The  
 street, where parties conduct of the American. The  
 furnished with credit, as this every other institution as to  
 working of the city, etc.

affluent. He has many that are acquainted with him and will be available in persons wishing to borrow money. He has a house in the rapidly improving town, with a few acres of the best land around.



